

# THE PSYCHOLOGICAL BULLETIN

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## THE FIELD OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

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What is social psychology? What are its scope and method? These are perennial questions which appear on the horizon of both psychology and the social sciences. Social psychology still remains a somewhat amorphous subject touching the social sciences, on the one hand, and physiology and psychology, on the other. If one were to distinguish present trends in the field from previous ones, he might say that the shift is distinctly toward the emphasis upon the individual in his social environment, indicating both the effect of the social milieu upon the personality and also the effect of cultural pressures which are a part of this social interaction. The sociological field approaches an inevitable *rapprochement* with the anthropological. This means it will phrase its materials in terms of culture traits, culture areas, cultural inventions, convergences and diffusions, and discontinue the bad practice of psychologizing group phenomena. And yet there is still considerable attention to the psychology of group life in spite of this trend.

The present review, which goes over the publications since Allport's article (4) will not attempt to cover material from the field of personality, which has been adequately summarized by May and Hartshorne (161, 162), Allport (10), Watson (245), Young (269), and Roback (198), except to indicate social conditioning of certain personality trends. Measures of character and personality must necessarily also deal with factors of social conditioning. The field of moral and social traits has received particular attention in recent years. With few exceptions we have avoided any overlapping with

these other reviews. It is unavoidable, however, that we treat, in part, the problems of social environment as it affects social behavior. Likewise, the psychological phases of cultural anthropology which have been reviewed by Willey and Herskovits (258) and papers on racial psychology, at least, as it touches intelligence measurements, which have been summarized by Garth (107a) will not be discussed.

We shall concern ourselves rather, first, with theoretical and historical aspects of the field, secondly, with the biological roots of social behavior. Finally, we shall examine the literature of social psychology as it touches the field of social attitudes, social distance and the whole scope of inter-relations of group life and personality.

### *I. Historical and Theoretical Phases of Social Psychology.*

A. Historical.—In the past three years a number of writers have traced the history of social psychology for us. This is itself indicative of an effort to frame the field in a more consistent and scientific manner. Dennes (79) traces the development of social psychology from Lazarus and Steinthal, through Wundt, Tarde, Durkheim, Windelband, and Rickert, to the modern period. He is particularly concerned with the cultural approach to social psychological data. The cultural products of historical societies comprise the subject matter of this field. Young's short history of social psychology (266), especially with reference to American developments, indicates the shift of interest from psychological sociology of Ellwood, Giddings, Small and others, with their curious mixture of sociological and psychological concepts, to the present emphasis on habits and attitudes which goes back, in turn, to the influence of Thomas, Dewey and the functional and behavioristic psychology. Karpf (136) describes the development of psychological sociology and then latterly the development of the individualistic emphasis in the field, first through the work of McDougall and the school of instinct and latterly through the emphasis on interaction, in terms of attitudes and habits. Sprowls (220) gives a good perspective to the whole field in the first chapter of his work, tracing out the philosophical, historical and psychological backgrounds of social psychology. Duprat (87) and Essertier (94) trace the development of social psychology, especially in France, as it has latterly developed away from the Durkheim school.

B. Theoretical Treatises.—The psychology of group life in terms of culture is ably presented by Dennes (79). Znaniecki (277) very

clearly distinguishes cultural data from that of individual psychology, and points out that social science can draw very little from laboratory psychology. In his monograph on the laws of social psychology (276) he indicates that social psychology must be a closed system of concepts independent of individual psychology and apparently somewhat independent of culture as described in his earlier book, *Cultural Reality*. He believes the behavioristic psychology of America has a limited contribution to make to social science, just as he is critical of the overemphasis upon quantitative analyses alone. Bernard has set forth his position in comprehensive form (29). For him social psychology concerns the individual in his social environment, both of other persons and of culture content which is carried in the psycho-social milieu, found in traditions, mores, folkways, institutions, and the like. Dunlap (84) posits a list of desires in place of instincts as basic to social behavior, but most of his book is given over to a psychologizing of social institutions without always giving an adequate cultural setting to his discussions. Thouless (235), although unduly influenced by McDougall, has written a valuable general treatise employing many concepts from dynamic psychology and yet recognizing the importance of environmental pressures as they affect personality. Young (271) in the introductory sections of his book outlines a three-dimensional approach to social behavior: that of culture, which is the scope of the social sciences proper, that of behavior mechanisms which is the field of psychology, and thirdly, the field of interaction which deals with the personality in his social environment which is the scope of social psychology. The study of persons in interaction, however, can not be understood without attention to the cultural backgrounds, on the one side, and the physiological-psychological mechanisms, on the other. Hart (121) has built his thesis largely around conflict both in the individual and within the group.

Weiss (252, 253) has attempted to link up the treatment of social psychology to his theoretical analysis of behavior. He postulates for social psychology ten distinct features: movement continuum, organism, speech, sensorimotor interchangeability, social organization, social evolution, civilization, methodology and applied social psychology. Ellwood's most recent contribution to theoretical social psychology (91, 92) is an attempt to formulate the field in recognition of both the mental and cultural factors which interplay in group behavior, for it is the group rather than the individual with which we

have to deal in social psychology. Barnes' own standpoint is somewhat revealed by his hearty approval of Ellwood (22). Judd, in contrast to Allport's view, very distinctly would found social psychology on institutional concepts (133, 134). In fact, he suggests re-naming the field to fit his own favorite phrase, *Psychology of Social Institutions*. If his standpoint is sound, one wonders why he does not deal with the family, property, the state and other institutions rather than to confine himself to art, number, punctuality, precision, etc., as phases of the psychology of institutions.

Kantor (135) has restated his point of view that social psychology should deal largely with social and cultural (that is, institutional) formulations described in terms of stimulus-response. Faris (95, 98) presents a clear case for considering social psychology as the subjective aspect of culture in which the personality may be considered both as producer of culture and as product. Wallis (243) discusses the whole relation of social psychology to individual psychology, pointing out in incisive manner the need to take into account cultural factors in describing men's lives in groups. For him social psychology may be quite independent of other sciences and gets nowhere by attempting to build on purely biological mechanisms. Thurnwald (237) and Roffenstein (200) discuss the relations of social psychology to cognate subjects. The former shows that the individual can not be separated from his group life. He does, however, strongly advocate giving up all such concepts as group mind and folk soul, which can only have a symbolic meaning and which easily mislead us. The personality as the carrier of associative life is the core of his scheme. The latter points out that social psychology has particularly to examine the "emotionalen Sachverhalte" of behavior and the field of suggestion which is so important in social interaction. Schneersohn (203) points out that social psychopathology is an important empirical science having no relation to normative matters. It is concerned with individual behavior as determined by psychic structures and group or social standards. Bagby (18) outlines the field of social psychology under four rubrics: psychology of crowds, reactions to persons as stimuli and the social experience factor, reactions to complex situations involving other persons as parts of general stimulus, and reactions and psychological phenomena of whatever type which have some relation to the problem of social welfare. To Allport (7) the field is very largely that of interstimulation of persons, taking the whole social situation into account. He is especially critical of



all group mind theories, but seems a little less opposed to the concepts of culture and group life than he was some years ago. For Park (184) society is not a static aggregation of units but a working organismic pattern of persons acting in corporate capacity. Kulp (140) holds that psychology has to do with the nervous system as it operates in reference to the physical world, social psychology studies social processes or interaction, and sociology deals with the products of social processes, *viz.*, organizations and structures. Shonle (214) points out the value of the concepts of sociology and social psychology in the field of religious education.

Adler (3) indicates the growing inter-relation of psychiatry and social psychology and other social sciences, while Eliot (90) and Ogburn (180) point out certain contributions of psychiatry to systematic social psychology. Perhaps the most comprehensive attempt to link psychiatry to social psychology is to be found in the work of Burrow. In a series of papers (48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53) he has shown how man's behavior is affected by social images quite as unconsciously formulated as individual unconscious images may be. We evade organic reality wherever possible, we show in our group life many of the neurotic strains of the individual when insane, we worship our heroes in the infantile manner and so on. The whole point of view is more fully set forth in his recent book (54). The reviewer confesses that he does not yet understand the contrast of *organic* reality versus *social* reality which Burrow stresses.

Rivers (197) reveals a keen appreciation of the close relation of psychology and ethnology and Malinowski (157) actually demonstrates this by his study of the mental life of primitive peoples. Goldenweiser (111) points out that in last analysis culture rests on the individual who, however, does not produce culture *de novo* from original nature but from this in combination with historical or cultural content brought him by his society. White (256) also stresses the cultural influences on personality, hence no mere biological analysis is sufficient to account for personality.

North's study of social differences (178) is a valuable compendium and analysis in terms of biological, psychological and sociological factors. Lumley (153) has made a beginning in analyzing psychological factors in social control. Lipsky (152) attempts to expose how man as an emotional, irrational being is everywhere under the domination of class, person or custom. A well written popular treatise is Overstreet's (182) who presents in lucid style the technics

of control through attention, habit, rationalization, and other unconscious mechanisms. Bernard (30) has made a brief analysis of the psychological foundations of society. Gault in his review (108) of recent developments in social psychology has given chiefly researches on intelligence differences, mental disorders and delinquents along with rather general discussion of leadership, progress and sense of social unity. Dunlap (86) expresses some hesitation on the applications of psychology to social problems although he deals freely with institutional questions in his book (84). Barnes (21) has made an invaluable contribution in his indication of the possible contribution of psychology to the analysis of historical data.

Closely related to these systematic attempts are the treatises bearing on the field from philosophy and biology. Simmel's contribution to social theory has been presented by Spykman (221) and his sections on social psychology, on submission and opposition and on the individual and the group are of value for psychologists. Bentley's book (26) in its emphasis on social relativity is of systematic importance for the field. And Wheeler's discussion of the place of social phenomena in the philosophic scheme of emergent evolution is invaluable (255). Klüver reviews the theory of types in "culture-science psychology" (138) from Spranger and Dilthey. Mead (164) contributes another valuable paper pointing out the relation of social consciousness to social objects and to mechanisms of social control.

Dowdall (82) points out that society is essentially a matter of human interrelations, but modified by institutional factors, dispositional forces and the dictations by men of each other. Likewise Hayes (123) indicates the threefold nature of social situations: physiological conditionings, conscious analysis, and overt behavior. He also points out the psychological aspects of institutions (124), giving especial attention to the rational elements in their formation. Markey (158) and Gillette (109) attempt definitions of social phenomena, the former in terms of relations of organisms to each other, human and infra-human, through a study of all ecological and environmental factors in collective behavior, and the latter in regard to direct (primary) and indirect (secondary) contacts.

There is always some attempt to make analogy between animal organism and social phenomena. Thus Lindsay (149) would draw a comparison between the cell life of the organism and the social interactions in groups. So, too, Child (66) in spite of his important contributions (see below) has attempted to define social phenomena

in terms of his own biological concepts. One may legitimately raise the question as to whether this adds anything to the analogies common to the Spencer or Schaeffle schools of a half century ago. More significant are the growing emphases by Alverdes (12, 13), Schjelderup-Ebbe (205), Markey (158), and Wheeler (255) on the need to develop a comparative sociology by a study of social interaction among the lower forms of animal life. Especially valuable are Köhler's observations on the social life of chimpanzees (139).

C. Methodology.—For keen analysis of difficulties in social research and for a clear presentation of the need of a methodology divergent from that of natural science, Cooley's article (70) is excellent. Sprowls (220) ably reviews the methods of natural science, of historiography, of statistics and various combinations of these. Park (183), Bogardus (36) and Poole (190) have discussed the methods of employing the concept social distance. Zwonitzka, following Bekhterev, suggests studying personality in its social setting by the objective methods of reflexology (278). On the side of case methods Shaw (208) has shown the advantage of full stenographic reports of family conflicts, personality stories in interviews, etc., and Bogardus (38) has suggested a method of group interview. On the statistical side Chapin (65) has proposed a method of measuring the volume of social stimuli, while Thurstone (238) has cleverly proposed to apply the method of paired comparisons to the study of social valuations. Clark (69) discusses the problem of measuring attitudes, while Bain (20) questions the entire approach through attitudes. Young (270) has contrasted the statistical and structural method with the historico-genetic and has attempted a synthesis of the two. English (93) suggests two experimental approaches, one by a study of voting and one by a study of wishes and preferences. Snow (217) urges more concrete studies of social motivations and points out, further, the need of statistical analysis in social data. Bernard (27) suggests a number of valuable problems for study in the social psychology of rural life.

Other methodological suggestions may be found in many of the papers cited below, especially those of statistical, experimental, or historical nature.

## II. *The Biological Foundations of Social Behavior.*

A. Heredity and Environment.—Of interest to social psychology is the present trend in the treatment of heredity and environment.

To-day many writers realize that to attempt to segregate sharply in the adult individual the factors of heredity from environment is not only foolish but misleading. Jennings (127) discusses the whole problem of environmental determination of the developmental stages of the individual, giving the lie to the easy assumption of sharp distinction between heredity and environment. Carmichael (58) in particular, reviews the literature on heredity and environment with distinct appreciation of the balance of the factors. Bernard (28, 29), Faris (95, 98), Young (271) and others in social psychology take precisely this view in regard to social behavior. And of profound influence on some recent writers on social psychology, particularly Bernard and other members of the Chicago school, has been the work of Child (66, 67) who has stressed the environmental determination of structure. His concepts of dominance, polarity, physiological gradient have not only indicated more clearly the features of physiological growth but have come to be used in interpretations by both sociologists and social psychologists.

B. The Instincts and Emotions.—There is still some tendency to employ the term instinct in a very loose manner as in the somewhat fanciful article by Thompson (234) who attempts to explain racial and cultural differences in terms of primitive hunting patterns. And Cadoux (56) points out previous useless efforts to explain war by instincts only. But the American writers have largely divided themselves into two camps on the whole question of the instincts, one favoring the use of the term, led by McDougall, the other for abolishing the term or, at least, restricting it very much, led by Bernard, Kuo, Watson and Faris. Some five years ago the controversy was at its height, but even within the past three years there has been much discussion of the problem. Shonle (213) takes the instinct school to task for arm-chair procedures rather than dependence on concrete studies. Eggen (88) shows the "egregious lack of unity" among the writers who use the term instinct and calls for complete abandonment of the concept. Laing (141, 142) in two articles criticized McDougall for postulating instincts as social forces and for stating that writers before him ignored the importance of instinctive or emotional nature in social behavior. Certainly Hume stressed these very influences. Wyatt (263) and Woodworth (262) both point out, however, that to completely abolish the concept of instinctive tendencies would be to ignore certain fundamental features of behavior. Weber (251) also criticizes the behaviorists for reducing the concept to a nonentity.

This is also the standpoint of Eldridge (89) who steers a middle course between the extremists. Schoen (204) boldly tries to reunite the opposing forces by recognizing levels of behavior in terms of its variability. And Tolman (239) does much the same thing by positing his two levels of drives, one fundamental to the other.

Dunlap (85), who has been charged with substituting desire for the concept of instinct, defends himself against the accusation by restating his position that though desire has an organic basis, it also is conscious and introspectively known to the subject.

De Saussure (80) traces out the various theories of instinct, intelligence, and the unconscious as found in modern writers. His own view is distinctly Freudian. House (125) traces out the place which the concept of instinct has played as a social force in sociological theory of the past.

Mursell (175) attacks the psychoanalytic position that sex is the driving instinct of the infant. He believes that a better case can be made out for nutritional drives as fundamental in the relation of child to mother and later of child to other adults. And Faris (97) discusses the concept of imitation which has been so frequently called an instinct, showing how varied and inconsistent many of the uses of this word have been.

The actual amount of experimental data on original nature has been very meagre. Watson (247, 249) has become increasingly certain in defending the abandonment of the concepts of any innate traits, although his own experimental work has ceased. In a study of 365 babies of both sexes and of different races and nationalities, Jones (132) has presented data on the early behavior patterns with special attention to smiling, eye-coördinations, blinking, opposition of the thumb, reaching, etc. Also of interest to social psychology as regards original nature, is the brief report on the "wolf children" of India (222).

Emotional factors in social behavior and in the make-up of personality are becoming more universally recognized. This is evidenced by the number of tests of emotional traits cited in the reviews of literature on personality (10, 161, 162, 245, 269). Of the writers in social psychology more particularly Moore (169), Read (192), Root (201), Overstreet (182), and Young (271) give an important place to the emotions as factors in social behavior. Watson (248) reviews the recent contributions on emotional conditioning, while Marston (159) attempts a restatement of the theory of emotions



based on a new terminology centering around dominance, compliance, submission and inducement.

### III. *Social Behavior and the Social Environment.*

In the field of general discussion Bartlett (23) shows the relations of group organization to the types of behavior of the group members. And Bernard's paper (28) on the place which the psychological factors of language, thought processes, inventions and the psychosocial environment play in social evolution gives a good perspective to social behavior. Finney (100) points out how the entire scope of the folkways rests in the field of the unconscious mechanisms which are socially predetermined. Park (184), Faris (98), Hart (121), Young (271) and others already mentioned discuss the problem of social conditioning in its wider aspects. In the present section, however, we shall confine ourselves to more particular aspects of the situation, dealing with social attitudes and social distance, with the relation of intelligence, of home, of occupation, of childhood groupings, collective formations, and political and other social configurations to social behavior of persons in their group life.

A. Social Attitudes and Social Distance.—Faris, who has taken the term social attitude over from Thomas, has traced its usage (96) and Symonds (228), although having used the term himself in questionnaire studies (227), has now developed great skepticism regarding the term and suggests abolishing it. A number of measuring scales have been constructed and used on the basis of attitudes as fundamental units of behavior. Hart's test (119, 120) was one of the earliest. Sturges (225) proposes methods of determining the validity, reliability, the diagnostic and prognostic value, of tests of attitudes. And May and Hartshorne (160) describe how they went about making a scale to measure moral attitudes and moral knowledge. They report (122) some of their findings based on an extensive statistical treatment of test materials. Bain has shown that there is a decrease in extent of religious attitudes since Leuba's investigation of ten years ago (19). Neumann (176) has devised a test on international attitudes for high school pupils, while Frederick (103) reports a study of national and international attitudes over a considerable section of our own country. Davis' study (76) contrasting the attitudes of children in governmental schools of Russia with those of American children regarding occupational valuations is interesting. With the former, proletarian vocations rate higher than banker,

doctor or professor. The Cavans show (61) the effect of conservative, stable home attitudes upon the attitudes of young business women toward the home and married life. Winter (261) discusses the "bad" effects of college traditions about Freshmen on the attitudes of the Freshmen. Thomas (233) treats in a qualitative, but effective manner, some of the relations between social attitudes of urban populations and the type of life and institution there. Morris (170) exposes the origin and nature of the social attitudes of beggars.

Prejudice is a type of social attitude expressed as social distance. Kershner (137) maintains that prejudice arises where group division-lines conjoin with racial ones. Busch analyzes the effect of parental prejudices on those of their children (55). G. B. Watson (244, 246) has made the most useful researches on prejudice and social attitude generally on a rather objective basis, with his test of fair-mindedness, while Rice's experiment on "stereotypes" reveals still another way of uncovering the sources of prepossession (194). Duffus (83) describes in popular language some of G. B. Watson's work.

Related to attitudes are opinions. Zeleny has a test of fairly high reliability for checking upon alterations in student opinions before and after courses in the social sciences (273). Jones (131), however, reveals how little college training affects opinions on economic, religious and social questions. Abel reports (2) differences among Polish, Czech, French and American students in beliefs and superstitions. Nixon (177), and Garrett and Fisher (107) reveal the extent of misconceptions in psychology and belief in current superstitions even among educated classes. They attribute these misconceptions to ignorance rather than to intelligence as measured by tests.

Closely related to the work on social attitudes has been the development of the concept of social distance by Park (183) who apparently has been influenced by Simmel (cf. 221). While Sorokin (219) has used the term in treating social mobility, it is Bogardus who has made the most extensive use of the concept to study prejudices and conflicts (35, 36, 42, 43), to study changes in attitudes (41) and to examine human relations in the city environment (40). Binneweis (32) applies the concept in a study of rural life. Poole (189) contrasts personal and social norms by it, and in another article treats the concept historically and systematically (190). And the Pooles together (191) attempt to formulate the laws of social distance.

## B. The Conditioning of Social Behavior.

1. Intelligence and Social Conditioning.—The first burst of enthusiasm for intelligence tests has now given way to a much more cautious approach. As an editorial writer (279) remarks, we are passing to-day into researches on the effects of emotions on social life and into studies on the factors which condition intelligence. Almack (11) points out that the group is necessary for socialization while mere intelligence does not account for it. Pihlblad (188) criticizes the intelligence testers for neglecting factors of cultural and social backgrounds. Weston and English (254) reveal the beneficial effect of working at psychological tests in the group rather than alone. Sengupta and Sinha (207) report facilitations in work in a group situation. Allport's earlier research on social facilitation is severely criticized by Williamson (260). Whittemore's study (257) of work under competition *Aufgabe* shows the effects produced by autosuggestion and the rivalry situation. Curtis (73) made a statistical analysis of the marked variability in test scores in the Stanford Achievement Tests in various eighth grade groups. He attributes the differences to home influences, especially to religious training. Brill (46) indicates the effect of higher intelligence on misconduct, showing that more motives are necessary to drive the brighter children into delinquency. Ross (202), in a learning experiment, has also shown that brighter pupils respond to motivations such as knowledge of results achieved better than do dull ones. These both suggest further questions of the relation of differences of intelligence to social motivation and social participation. The measurement of the effect of intelligence on social adaptation is shown by De Greef (77) in his study of the time taken by defective children to adjust themselves in foster homes.

2. Family Influences.—The effect of the home life upon the individual has been recently investigated from a number of angles. Jones and Carr-Saunders (130) show that the intelligence quotients of children of the lower classes improved on residence in orphanages, while the reverse was true of children of the upper classes. Sutherland and Thomson (226) report a low negative correlation between the size of family and group intelligence test scores. Arthur (17) has shown that the younger sibs of immigrant families outshine their older brothers and sisters in intelligence. She attributes this to change in diet, but the reviewer suggests that the regularity of school attendance, as well as the rise in economic status may have something

to do with this change. Griffiths (114) indicates that school grades are conditioned by size of family, children of smaller families being superior. Lentz (148) has shown that intelligence quotients correlate negatively with size of family and things this augurs ill for society, since lower classes have largest families. Clark (68) analyzes the family backgrounds of college students to find that the grades of students of immigrant families are superior to those of children of two native-born parents. Also that sibs correlated higher than non-sibs in grades, while there was some inverse relationship in grades and attendance of parents at college. Slawson (215) shows that the number of children in a family has a low correlation with delinquency. Other factors must be taken into account. Blanchard and Paynter (34) point out that while children of marginal families were lower in intellectual status that their percentage of behavior difficulties was small. Foster (101), Goodenough and Leahy (112), and Harper (118) trace out some of the effects of family life on personality, the first and third by case study, the second by ratings on traits. Groves (116) shows influence of parents on marriage and parental attitudes of next generation. Young (268) reveals the mechanism of projection of ambitions of parents on their children. Williams (259) also discusses the effect of neurotic parents on children. In a historical study (199) Robin traces out intra-family hatreds. This should prove valuable to students of social interaction in the family group.

3. Children Groups.—Shevaleva and Ergolska (212) studied the social reaction of 708 children in recitation groups, using Bekhterev's method of "social reflexology." Studencki (224), in a study of the interplay of group pressures and personal strivings in personality growth, holds that up to thirteen years the home and school predominate, after fourteen years the ego-demands and the demands of the larger society become dominant. Macaulay (155) attempted to study social, age and sex differences in children's moral attitudes and ideas by questions, a list of wicked things and lists of historic persons who might be thought ideals. Tanaka (231) reports a questionnaire study of children's values on family, school, and personal conduct. Meltzer (166) has made a valuable study of how concepts of social meaning arises. He has also contrasted talkativeness about social concepts to knowledge of these concepts on the part of children (167). Both talkativeness about and knowledge of the concepts increased with school grades. But the correlation of one with the other was

negative (—31). Schwesinger (206) in a study of children's social-ethical vocabulary, finds it related to social experience, to intelligence and to social status of parents. Lehman and Witty (147) by using a check list of 200 questions on about 6,000 children, have made a most exhaustive study of the play activities of children comparing the play of town and country children, of gifted and normal children, and of negro and white children. They note the compensatory functions of the movies, and the Sunday comic sections, and further report the changes of play activities with age.

Thrasher (236) made a study of 1,313 gangs in Chicago, revealing both the ecological and the psychological backgrounds of gang behavior, while Furfey's book (104) deals with the whole problem of the gang age in its psychological and social connotations. His study of factors influencing the choice of companions (105) makes a statistical analysis of the old saw that "birds of a feather flock together."

4. Occupational Groups.—Counts (71) found that the social position accorded certain vocations gave them high ratings and often caused a problem of fitting the individual into the field he desired. That school administration is in the hands of the dominant economic classes is revealed by another study of his of the composition of school boards (72). Groves (115) holds that the married woman who works, where it is from choice, not economic necessity, promotes attitudes of freedom. Bogardus (43a) relates personality to occupational backgrounds showing how distinctly occupational attitudes dominate much of our behavior. Zimmerman and Black (274) and Zimmerman (275) from an extended study of the marketing and other social attitudes of Minnesota farmers, report that the overt, objective attitudes are distinctly related to the farmers' daily experience, while the ideational (subjective) attitudes depend on custom, hearsay and the whole ideological matrix in which the individual has grown up. Smith (216) discusses the rural mind as it reflects occupation.

5. Political Groups and Public Opinion.—Studies in public opinion have been made by Lippmann (150) who has grown more skeptical of the older formulations of public opinion. He points out that special interests are constantly at work and that the public only becomes aroused at crises and then likely in a purely emotional way, unless it can hold in check by those elements which will bend public action to ethical ends. Dewey's analysis of the public and its problems (81) is a philosophical and psychological analysis of the falsity



of earlier and current beliefs on the nature of the state and the public. It is a plea for an objective approach. Merriam (168) reveals considerable faith in the contribution which psychology can make to political science. Angell (14) makes a scathing analysis of public opinion showing its irrationality, its emotionality during the very crises when it ought to be calm. He berates the professors and leaders for their incapacity to do more than follow the same emotional trend of the masses in these times. Allport (8, 9) has analyzed the psychological nature of political structures showing what he calls the institutional fallacies of the nationalistic state. We should avoid thinking of the nation, the state, the public, etc., as entities. Rather they are attitudes and reaction systems which may be modified by social conditioning. How the sentiment of patriotism arises from distinctly cultural factors is shown by Garnett (106). And the bureau of international education (47) has prepared a questionnaire for the study of patriotic attitudes and ideas. On the side of public opinion proper, Bogardus (37), using his social distance concept, has made a study of how opinions on races were changed, and Allport and Hartman (5, 6) have attempted a statistical analysis of group opinion through the mathematics of probability. Lumley (153) presents valuable material on gossip, propaganda and other factors which contribute to the formation of opinions. Ellwood (91) retains his ancient conception of public opinion as a rational factor in control. The place of word formulae leadership in the formation of opinion is discussed by Lipsky (152). Armstrong and Eliot discuss the effect of the physical arrangements of an audience on their behavior (15).

On the side of organs of opinion, Abbot (1) discusses the influence of the press on character traits of the individual with special reference to newspaper sensationalism. Orton (181) treats qualitatively the problem of unbiased newspapers and opinion. Bird (33) reports a valuable analysis of the effect of newspaper reading on accuracy of report, showing that inaccuracies may easily be stimulated by fallacious news stories. Lundberg (154), on the basis of a concrete analysis of a campaign, holds that newspapers rather reflect than "make" public opinion, that only for distinctly homogeneous groups, who have their own papers, do we find a close parallel of the newspaper which is read and the opinion held by the readers. The radio as an organ of public opinion has distinct limitations as con-

trusted with the leader, the theater, the church, and the press, according to Beuick (31).

Lasswell (145) has succinctly analyzed the psychological factors in political propaganda, and his book on world war propaganda (146) is a contribution of the first order in revealing the play of psychological factors in the determination of morale, opinion, and action of belligerents.

Gosnell (113) has made an analysis of why people vote and of the techniques and effects of "getting out the vote." Meier (165) has studied the motives in voting in the 1920 election, showing the important place which the motives for sanity, safety and security played in people's voting. Rice (193), on the basis of a questionnaire, has made a statistical analysis of changes of opinions on Coolidge, Davis, and La Follette in the 1920 campaign. He has also (194) made a clever study of stereotypes showing how people's judgments are affected by the images and attitudes which are brought them through the press, through education, etc. Lippmann (151) analyzes the psychological roots of censorship in fear and defense mechanisms. He also discusses the decay of political interest. And Moore (169) has studied the innate factors in radicalism and conservatism, while Root (201) analyzes radicalism more in terms of differences in emotionality and experience. Shepard (211) has traced out the historic roots of the bi-party political system in the United States and indicated how it is related to our culture and to our national psychology. Sorokin (218) has analyzed political revolutions largely in terms of instincts. Yoder (265) reviews current definitions of revolution pointing out the we need to study revolutions in the light of full cultural and psychological factors, especially changes in attitudes. Payne (185) has used the Feudian terminology to analyze international conflicts.

6. Collective Behavior.—McDougall (156) takes Freud to task for his atavistic thesis that social groupings grow out of the primitive domination of the father over the group of subordinates, male and female. This type of analysis hardly accounts for the wide ramifications of collective behavior. Catlin believes that our society finds itself in much friction because of the moral infancy of the mass of mankind (60).

Armstrong-Jones discusses the place of suggestion in social life examining various situations in which suggestion plays a rôle (16). Bekhterev attempts an explanation of social suggestion and collective

hallucinations in terms of his "reflexology" (25). Cason (59) studied the effect of suggestion on the imagery type when persons were examined in a group situation. There was some shifting of imagery under suggestion, women being about one-fifth more suggestible than men. The students in the center of the room were slightly more suggestible than those on the margins. Suggestibility has no correlation with class standings. Travis (241) shows that the hand-eye coördination called for in his experiment is somewhat superior under group stimulation of an audience than when performed alone.

7. Leadership.—Bowman (44) suggests the study of the motives of the leaders and their work always upon the background of the social group concerned. Bartlett (24) discusses leadership through social prestige, through personal domination and through personal persuasion. Ogburn (179) indicates clearly the need to study both hereditary and environmental factors in the production of great men. Although Cox (74) has not always given adequate weight to the possible environmental forces, her analysis of the historical leaders of thought (geniuses) is most interesting and unique. Fearing (99) reviews the literature, though inadequately, on psychological studies of historical leaders. Tralle's book (240) is a popular, impressionistic description of factors in leadership. Chapin (63) discusses leadership in terms of socialization and in relation to group membership. Leadership to-day tends to follow socialized ideals rather than personal domination. Zeleny (272) discusses the relation of leaders to group morale, while Craig (75) suggests methods of studying morale and leadership in industry in terms of such objective things as per capita output, quality of work and labor stability. Strow (223) indicates the changes in types of leadership which have gone on with increasing mobility. Bowden (45), Caldwell (57) and Chapin (64) have investigated the qualities of leaders in educational institutions. The first study was made by a modification of Allport's rating scale. The second dealt with junior high school leaders, the third with the correlations of grades, physical health, and extra-curricular activities. Bogardus (39) discusses the relation of leadership to boys' clubs and to the problem of boy conduct. Munro's study (173) of political leadership is indicative of present tendencies in political science to attempt psychological analyses of political leaders. Lippmann (151) analyzes the place of Bryan, Al Smith, and others as leaders to-day. Weatherley in his discussion of social

progress (250) treats in Part II of the influence of pessimists, conservatives, radicals, utopians, and others on social thought and social progress. Tait (229, 230) discusses the relation of leadership to democratic social organization and warns us of the danger of reformers. Neither of these articles contribute anything to an understanding of leadership, however. Root (201) has an incisive analysis of two types of leaders: the scientific persons who may be radical in a distinctly valid sense and the emotionally-toned person who goes off into various isms, conservative or radical.

C. Miscellaneous Studies: Language, Social Tests, Nationalistic Differences, etc.

Valuable contributions to the field of language as it relates to social life have come from Piaget (186, 187), who shows the ego-centric, autistic nature of early language which is followed by its more social characteristics as the child develops, from Mead (163), who gives a naturalistic account of the rise of language out of group life, and from De Laguna (78), whose recent book treats language both in its psychological and sociological settings.

Moss, Hunt, and others (171, 172) have developed a social intelligence test in six parts: Judgment of social situation, memory for names and faces, recognition of mental states from facial expressions, observation of human behavior, social information, and recognition of the mental state of a speaker. There are norms based on 7,000 cases, but no information is given on reliability or validity. Wyman (264) reports tests and ratings on social traits of gifted children as a part of Terman's study of so-called geniuses. Gilliland and Burke (110) have attempted a test of sociability with ratings as a check on validity, and Sheldon (209) has found some positive correlations between aggressiveness, leadership and sociability ratings and the factor of general bigness and slight correlations with other morphologic traits.

Riddle (195, 196) has studied forms of aggressiveness, first through an experimental situation of bluffing in a poker game, and, secondly, in regard to stealing. Shen (210) reports the influence of intimate friendship upon the rating of certain traits in the case of a group of men who were well known to each other, but some of whom were very close friends.

Certain sex and nationalistic differences in conversations are revealed by the studies of Landis and Burt (143) and Landis (144). Women are more personal, men more impersonal in their conversa-

tions. In England men adapt their conversation with women more to the latter's direction than do American men. Tao (232) has made a statistical analysis of Chinese words expressing virtues and vices as an index, in part, of the relation of language to culture norms, and Chang has made a rather ingenious study of mercantile advertising in Peking as a revelation of Chinese merchant psychology (62). Hoyland (126) contrasts questionnaire results in 1,164 Hindoo children on social and moral traits with a former study of American children by Earl Barnes. Hindoo children are more susceptible to religious and ethical ideals and less to materialistic considerations. The influence of long-standing superstitions on the advancement of health programs among the American negroes is shown by Frazier (102), while Johnson (128) shows the continuance of various superstitions through a study of advertisements in the negro press.

The carry-over from one culture to another of words without consideration to their meaning in the original setting is shown in Johnson's analysis (129) of the negro meaning of popular negro blues in contrast to white conceptions. Young's study (267) of over three thousand Protestant hymns indicates the persistence of a great many infantile and childhood wishes projected into an accepted religious form.

Murchison's statistical analysis of intelligence tests of criminals reveals the influence of social mobility, of sex and race upon extent and types of crime (174). Sorokin's treatise on social mobility (219) deals, in part, with the psychological influences of increased mobility in modern times.

Haines (117) shows the effects of defective hearing upon the social participation of the deaf. Vinchon (242) discusses the social life of unbalanced personalities suggesting that by proper treatment they might be made socially useful.

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## CRIMINOLOGY

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The last review of this subject-matter was published in the *BULLETIN* in October, 1925. Since that time there have been no revolutionary publications in the field of criminology. Conservatism on the part of psychologists and others who are working in this field appears to be the order of the day. It is written between the lines of numerous reports upon research that no simple formula for crime and criminals can be set down, although it seems to the reviewer that occasionally certain psychiatrists come rather close to simplicity.

Next to knowing where one wants to go one of the first requisites of scientific work is method. Unfortunately, in the course of the period that is being reviewed there is but one extended discussion, so far as the reviewer has found, of the question of methodology. Woods (100) has stated the advantages and disadvantages of each of four methods: the philosophical or armchair, the statistical, the survey and the case work method. It is within the spirit of the age to dismiss the first. The statistical method, owing in a large measure to our facilities for getting statistics, too often represents only what court officials think is important, and is likely to suggest a particularistic view. It never reveals the individual. The survey method also is likely to overlook the individual case. The author, in the reviewer's opinion, justifiably emphasizes the case work method of research and approvingly discusses the work of Healy and Bronner (35). Their 20 case histories from the Judge Baker Foundation, serve to the present as models of case history work. They represent a many-sided study of the individual as a personality and as one in contact with the physical and social environment. The authors state that we must change our notion that mentally defective boys and girls are potentially delinquent or dependent. Likewise we must change our opinion that organized gangs and other social factors are the all important thing. As a matter of fact the single acquaintanceship rather than the gang, in their observation, is a highly important social factor in delinquency.

Judge Riddell (71, 72, 73, 74) and Professor Sellin (79, 80) have illuminated some of the backgrounds of our criminal procedure and our penology. Riddell's several articles report the quaint and curious of the long past in English and American procedure and give forcible illustration of the fact that the spirit of the times sinks into law and the courts, and determines in very large degree what the laws shall be and what shall be our criminal procedure. Sellin's articles uncover the roots of our most forward penological views of today in the middle seventeenth century in France and Belgium.

Tarnowski (89), a German criminologist of philosophical disposition, has discussed a theory of crime and of criminal law. We must not take as the cause an act which in the specific case has actually brought about a result unless we can generalize and say that the act in question has a tendency to produce a result of the class to which the actual result belongs. Calon (13) discusses the age-old questions of responsibility and imputability in several hundred pages, but he does not neglect the objective scientific exposition. He reviews both facts and current theories and discusses them as bases of legislation. Michael (54), from his viewpoint after having widely studied German criminals, reports his views upon the motives of criminal action. Among the more intelligent criminals he finds self-interest to be the prevailing motive. Among the less intelligent jealousy and revenge rank high as causes of criminal behavior. Poffenberger (67) devotes some space in a general treatise on applied psychology to the problems of criminal conduct. We must know the causes of anti-social behavior, and as a psychologist he is inclined to find them in the psychological make-up of the offender.

The place of social causation in relation to criminal conduct is well represented by Platt (66), but without neglect of psychological factors. The psychologic deviation from the normal among criminals is not so great as many would like to think.

Just when we think we have got away from the simple formula of Lombroso, it is disconcerting to be faced with what many, including the reviewer, consider the new Lombrosianism. Curti (17), in an article under this title, points out that psychologists (perhaps she might have included the psychiatrists as partners) have established a new Lombrosianism which is "just as shaky as the old." It consists in an established belief in the inherent inferiority of the criminal population. This the author describes as a "rationalization of the *status quo* of the criminal." It saves thinking and is comfort-

ing to those who look on. It is much less comforting to refuse the formula and to find one's self compelled to accept the proposition that one of the chief factors in criminal causation is to be found in the conditions of living which on their side induce reactions that result in the establishment of, in too many instances, unfavorable dispositions.

The psychiatrist's view of criminal causation is perhaps nowhere more strikingly illustrated than in the Loeb-Leopold case. Gosline (31) implies that the deterrent effect of social life upon these youthful murderers has had in the long run an unfortunate effect upon their development. The more active by nature an individual may be, according to this view, the more serious the effect of social deterrence. By the same token punishment is a form of repression. It dams up and causes festering. Take off the lid. Thus psychiatrists keep weeds from growing in the garden. On the other hand, Wigmore (96) quotes a federal judge of long experience as stating that postal thefts within his jurisdiction were reduced five-sevenths or nine-tenths by reason of strong measures of repression. This view, says Dean Wigmore, may be restricted to juvenile offenses till it can demonstrate its right to gradual acknowledgment. This, it may be properly urged, is not a reply to the psychiatrist's view. For, however effective the measures Wigmore approves may be with respect to the purpose of the law, that is, to protect society as a whole, it may, in the long run, be disadvantageous from the psychiatrist's viewpoint which primarily considers the advantage of the individual. Glueck (28) offers a vigorous defense of the position of the psychiatrist in that notable case. At the same time, however, he expresses his regret that they allowed themselves to fall into careless statement and into the appearance of partisanship. The extreme psychiatric view finds strong support in Dr. Burr (11) who after a long and rich experience as a practicing psychiatrist defines the criminal as one who is born and not made. It is better to execute the insane murderer for he will murder again. The position of many psychiatrists is well represented also by Karpman (42). Psychoanalytic studies often show that criminal behavior is the outlet for underlying conflicts, as in kleptomania, etc. Harmony of instincts makes normal personality. Conflicts never produce a neurotic reaction until they involve the instinct of gregariousness. Neill (63) makes a detailed attempt to apply such ideas to the problem child. There are a few analyses of notorious individual criminals like



Murphy by Yawger (101) that are inspired by the extreme psychiatric view and that presumably give it ample support.

There are several interesting studies of character traits of delinquents—studies that are near neighbors to psychoanalytic investigation and that have the advantage of concreteness. In this class is one by Cushing and Ruch (18) in which the authors have attempted to arrive by means of character tests at a statement of relative suggestibility of delinquent and non-delinquent girls. A similar study, but more extensive, was made by Branham (6) in the New York Institution for Mental Defectives. In respect to character traits these delinquents differ at several points from prison types. For example, they are more suggestible, and more timid and seclusive. Stealing has been described by Riddle (75) as an expression of aggressiveness. A larger proportion of boys than girls are known to steal. The mental age of children who are known to steal is sixteen months above that of those who have not stolen, and twenty-eight months above that of those of whom no stealing has been reported—which means at most only that there is no correlation between mental age and a tendency to steal. Weber and Guilford (32), on the basis of results of the use of army intelligence tests and the Pressey X-O tests, join with other in the judgment that mental deficiency is a cause of delinquency only when it combines with character trends. It is in keeping with this view that Tait (88) says psychopathy does not explain why crimes are committed though they may be due to psychopathic states. Oliver (64) pleads for the golden mean.

The physical traits of delinquents and criminals have not been overlooked. Aden (2) and Eisler (23) have studied these characteristics of individual offenders. The report of the former is interesting because it is based upon a study of the motor abilities of 410 delinquents and dependents by means of Pintner and Paterson's short scale of performance tests, and their ratings were compared with those obtained by Pintner and Paterson from a school group that was used for purposes of standardization. This test, the author believes, taps some abilities and traits that are not uncovered by the Binet and Stenquist tests; and Slawson (84) finds the mechanical aptitude of delinquent boys is on a par with that of New York City school boys, though at the same time they are less stable emotionally.

Eliot (24) supplies what we have learned almost to expect from the sociologists: an attempt to apply psychoanalytic classifications to the broad scope of social behavior.

Numerous students in addition to Healy and Bronner, already referred to, have reported upon individual delinquents. Among them are Haynes (34) and Bridges (10). The latter agrees with the view that has become current, that root causes of delinquency cannot be found by one person alone, nor in a short interview with the delinquent, nor in any number of interviews with him alone. The cause is always to be found in a combination of factors.

Among studies of special groups is that of epileptics by Clark (14). He asks for a more flexible legal and medical construction of the epileptic constitution independent of epileptic attacks as such. Von Henting (93) has studied the criminal tendencies of the blind and suggests that inhibitory factors such as hampered motor responses and asthenic constitution are most important.

Malinowsky (50) finds that primitive people are not law abiding because of the group instinct, as Rivers suggested, but for rational and practical considerations.

On the relation between the psychiatrists and the courts we have the volume by Glueck (28). This is an attempt to interpret the legal aspects of insanity to the psychiatrists and social workers and the symptomatology of mental disorders to lawyers and judges. The charges of judges have developed tests of irresponsibility that have hardened into rules. These have added confusion because they are not always confined strictly to the particular case. The expert should confine himself to scientific backgrounds and not to opinions as to the sanity of the defendant. They are bound to be biased doctrinally, but this is not important. Their employment by the court, which has been suggested by many, is likely to give them artificial weight out of proportion to their intrinsic value.

Branham (7) points out several difficulties in the way of reconciliation between the psychiatrist and the court. The former has discredited himself in many eyes by his zeal for prison reform, and the court seems to him to be anchored in tradition. In the coöperation between the court and the psychologists in the juvenile court he sees the beginning of hope for the future.

On the question of tests for responsibility Woods (99) offers the following: "If at the time of committing the act there was present in the mind of the actor a well founded hope of escaping the penalty prescribed therefor by law, but for which hope he would not have committed the act, he is to be held responsible—otherwise, irresponsible."

There is a long list of titles suggestive of sociological causes of crime. In most instances investigations under these titles have more or less of a psychological flavor. Dexter (19) regards crime and delinquency as a failure to fit into the social organization. Psychology is to point the way to readjustment. It is bad form to be pessimistic. Many who approach the problems of crime from the sociologist's viewpoint are more hopeful of practical assistance from the psychologists and psychiatrists than the psychologists and psychiatrists themselves.

Platt (66) develops much the same ideas. The individual inherits certain disorders, etc. that must be adjusted to the requirements of social custom. Lindsey and Evans (48) recognize these same inherited disorders and place a burden of blame upon parents and teachers and other adults who by reason of their conventionalities, it is alleged, place too heavy obstacles in the way of the adjustment of youth.

Slawson (83) is one of those who have undertaken statistical studies relating to the size of family and other sociological factors in relation to delinquency. A study of 1,522 delinquent boys in three New York institutions furnished data that the author compares with data obtained from 147,925 employed youths who were in 1918 under the auspices of the military training commission of New York. The delinquent boys are from slightly larger families than the employed youths, but the difference is not great. Nationality and race and biological factors were not considered in this study. The conservation of the family and the conditions that interfere with its normal functioning as a means of social control are regarded by Popenoe (68) to be of most interest to younger and older students. It is interesting to find a discussion of the technique of research in the field of family disorganization by Mowrer (59). This is less a description of situations than an explanation.

There have been many studies that may be classified as surveys of institutions, the results of which belong either in the group of those that delineate social phenomena or psychological phenomena according to the emphasis that the reader places upon them. Sanborn (77) has reported an analysis of the population of the reformatory for women at Framingham. She divides the group into curable and incurable. The curable belong to the corrective institutions because they may be reëducated and ultimately returned to the community to assume normal responsibility where they can no longer be dis-

tinguished from others. Those who really belong in the reformatory are 46 per cent of the total population. These have no nervous or intellectual defect. Hewes (37), reporting upon conditions at Stockton Farm, found about 11 per cent were of normal intelligence (I.Q. 90-109). The median I.Q. of this group fell within the range 60-75. It will be remembered that the median I.Q. among Terman's unselected school children fell within 96-105. Other studies of this character are by Sullivan (86) and Maris (51).

Heinzen and Rypins (37) report a survey of a different character in the city of San Francisco. In this city an offender stands less than a 50 per cent chance of being convicted for certain types of crime. The survey of the Georgia Courts by the State Department of Public Welfare (26) in many respects is similar to the work in San Francisco, although it was made primarily for the purpose of presenting in perspective the work of the courts. The Missouri Crime Survey by Moley (56), the first state-wide survey of crime conditions in the United States, presents a picture of the operations of courts and other officials who function in relation to crime and criminals.

In the course of the last five years, during which there has been no substantial change in social or industrial life, in the state of Idaho Leeper (74) reports that juvenile delinquency has doubled. It is due, he believes, to disordered home life. This, he thinks, is usually the case in the small town. Thrasher's (91) study of 1,313 gangs in Chicago that are represented in every social level is at once an intimate study of boyhood and a survey of conditions that make for juvenile delinquency.

Bridges and Bridges (9), applying the national intelligence tests, the Meyers mental measure, Kohs' ethical measure, the Pressey X-O test and Mathews' questionnaire, find the group test a necessary correlate to individual examinations of juvenile delinquents. The first three of those mentioned correlate high, while the last two have a low correlation with other factors. Murchison (60, 61, 62) has compared the intelligence level of white women criminals and of negro women criminals, and of criminals in general, with the level of the draft army. He asserts that on the whole the intelligence level of the criminal groups is somewhat higher than that of the draft.

In spite of all conflicting testimony and complexity of factors at work, it is encouraging to find from Miss Abbott (1) a report upon delinquency rates in 14 cities for the period 1915-1925. Generally speaking, the rate is lower at the end of the period than at its begin-

ning. In New York, for instance, there is very marked decrease from 11.1 to 6.8 per 1,000 in the population.

A unique investigation is that by Crooks (16). The thesis is that burglar insurance encourages carelessness and a daredevil disposition to "get away with it." He supports his argument with statistics from insurance companies.

Dr. Doll (20), out of a wide experience discusses principles of correctional treatment. From time to time there should be reclassification to correct mistakes and to check up on progress. Correctional treatment must always anticipate release sufficiently early to increase the likelihood of readjustment outside the institution. He recommends a system of promotion and of transfers, and of pre-parole assignments to reduce parole from the social gamble that it too often proves to be. Bramer (5) and Witmer (98) have discussed the history of parole. Bramer emphasizes the organization and administration of the parole system while Witmer speaks of its theory and results. Unfortunately she is compelled to confess that we know practically nothing of the efficiency of the system. Bates (4) recommends a clearing house or classification commission for the purpose of administering proper remedial treatment.

Near to parole is the system of probation discussed by Cooley (15). We are almost as short of information relating to the operation of probation as of parole.

Sellin (81) has found the ideal aims and methods of punishment in our country vigorously represented in the prison reform movement in Belgium.

The question of the efficacy of punishment is perennial. It comes forward especially in relation to the death penalty. Sutherland (87) emphasizes the fact that we do not have adequate information to enable us to answer the question whether we should dispense with the death penalty or retain it. It is true that the homicide rate in our country is ten times as high as in England. Probably this holds of murders too. But we do not know. The homicide rate among colored people in the United States is almost seven times as high as that among whites. In Florida the rate is twenty-two times as high as in the state of Vermont. In England the death penalty is frequent and the homicide rate is low. In our southern states, on the other hand, the death penalty is frequent and the homicide rate is high. There is no basis for a conclusion. Bye (12), after a historical sketch of the death penalty and a discussion of its present status,



expresses the opinion that there is no reason to believe that the present century will see the passing away of the death penalty.

Willson (97), discussing the adaptation of treatment to cause in juvenile delinquency, found that in a total of 233 cases, compared with the Binet mental age, school placement was one and two grades too high in 136 cases; in 41 it was 3 and 4 grades too high; in 33 cases it was correct; in 22 it was 1, 2, and 3 grades too low; in one case six grades too high. The school should have recognized potential delinquency and should have adjusted the school to the individuals. Presumably the author believes that improvement in school placement in these instances might have prevented some degree of delinquency.

There is a deal of discussion now as always upon the question whether punishment in any form is effective. Meagher (53) believes that criminals do think of the possibility of execution and of other forms of punishment. The prospect of punishment, he thinks, does tend to prevent crime. These observations are included in a long discussion that deals chiefly with the contradictions amongst psychiatrists. Upon this point Killick (43) is in agreement, especially if punishment is severe and certain. But a thorough understanding of the individual criminal's nature, according to Drever (21) is necessary in order that the most suitable form of punishment may be selected; and Lipman (49) asserts that there are cases in which, in spite of demonstrated difficulty, punishment cannot be justified on any ground. In many instances he believes the court having established guilt should consider the motives and personality of the offender. McAdoo (52) believes that the bulk of offenders are fundamentally heartless and cowardly and cannot be reformed by punishment. Custodial permanent keeping is in order. It is the conviction of the impossibility of reforming at any rate repeated offenders that has given rise to the Baumes law, and it is of some interest to observe that Heindl (36) is engaging in propaganda in Germany for the adoption of something like our New York Baumes Law in that country.

Barnett (3) discusses the legal grounds of pardon, and Wheeler (94) tells the usual story of the county jail as she saw it in Oregon—an institution that has outlived its usefulness, excepting possibly as a place of detention.

Passing from punishment to prevention, Truitt (92) is convinced that nothing can be done toward the prevention of delinquency and crime till we recognize that methods therefor can be evolved only

through fundamental modifications in our educational methods, in housing, in dealing with unassimilable aliens and in revamping our court processes.

The problems presented by narcotics are discussed by Middlemiss (55) in his report of the first world conference on narcotic education.

Public opinion as a preventive is discussed in one of several selected articles by Kirby (44). No reform can go ahead of it, and in this connection Highfill (39) has devoted an extended article to the effects of news. Among journalists there is need for a code of ethics and for the acquisition of knowledge of a social and anti-social significance. He suggests that a paper should perhaps be forbidden to publish anything but a transcript of criminal cases. This, however, is undoubtedly a matter that must wait not for a dictum but for the development of public opinion.

Shartel (82) presents a thorough discussion of attempts at legislation upon the question of sterilization, but without discussion of its merits.

Several aspects of convict labor are discussed by Hyneman (40), Schwartz (78), Jackson (41), and Mohler (56). Prisons may be self-supporting, but they are not so at present, and indeed to make them so is not the immediate and present problem.

The necessity for socializing the courts, that is for making them more responsive to the needs of the community is emphasized by Perkins (65). Popple (69) briefly characterizes the court of criminal equity. "Criminal equity" appears in the guise of natural justice. It originated in the criminal jurisdiction of the Kings-in-Council, sitting in Star Chamber. Its jurisdiction is analogous to that of the Chancellor in civil matters. The English Parliament has widened the powers of ordinary courts, giving them some of the jurisdiction of the King-in Council. This is true, for instance, in courts of criminal appeal in England and Canada. As social conditions change and the attitude that leads to making the punishment fit the crime gives place to a disposition to make a scientific study of crime and criminals, the fundamental principles of equity will have a larger place than at present. Certain factors retard the development of courts of criminal equity. First, the spirit of lawlessness and disregard for constituted authority. Amelioration of law cannot come while law itself is held in disrepute and lawlessness prevails; when one part of society is armed against another. Second, indifference of executive agencies

in relation to the condition of the criminal and lack of policy underlying their actions. Efforts of outside agencies are watched by executive officials with an anxious eye.

Robinson (76) finds a revolt of the jury and disinclination on their part to find guilty. They are disposed to deliver a verdict not according to the evidence but to pronounce a judgment of Solomon for which they are not qualified. All this is a reflection of the spirit of the age. The individual man is the thing. Juries do not want abstractions.

The problems that arise from pleas of insanity have not been answered. White (95), after a historical sketch, expresses a welcome for medical criticism of the law in so far as it correctly appreciates the fundamental fact that law is for the benefit and protection of society as a whole against any one who by his act has broken the rule prescribed by society for its own protection. He urges that we abolish the defense of insanity; that the question of fact be decided by the jury. Then let any needful inquiry be made in relation to the mental status of the defendant. Thayer (90) is thinking along similar lines. Before sentence is passed, refer the defendant to a commission to be studied with the understanding that it will report back with a recommendation. Then sentence to an appropriate institution, but let it always be indeterminate. This he believes would have a deterrent effect. One of the disheartening things about criminal legislation and procedure in the United States, relating to the disposition of a plea of insanity and countless other matters as well, is lack of uniformity. This, however, Hafter (33) shows is not characteristic of the United States alone.

Psychologists and others have not given up the attempt to find a means whereby accurate distinctions may be drawn between truth telling and falsehood between the guilty and the innocent. English (25) finds that the distinction between good and bad liars, based upon following or disobeying instructions as to the order of forming free associations is invalid. Larson (45) makes no final statement regarding the efficacy of mechanical devices for detection, and he presents no statistical data. He does, however, quote a number of favorable reports to public officials who claim to have used his lie detector successfully. Goddard's (30) report on scientific identification of firearms and bullets states that the Bureau of Forensic Ballistics is about to banish opinion in cases in which the question is whether this bullet came from that pistol. The bureau has, at its

command, compilations of shop standards entering into the manufacture of practically all models of revolvers and automatics in the world. Its resources include specifications of bore diameter, number of grooves, direction of grooves, groove depth, groove diameter, groove width, land width, rate of pitch. It is equipped with instruments of precision including a comparison microscope. Each pistol, says the author, leaves its own finger-print on every bullet it fires. It remains, then, under the microscope, to make a comparison between the bullet in question and another that is known to have passed through the pistol in question. That tells the story.

The system of finger-printing and of identification by finger-prints appears to be extending to foot-prints. For Montgomery (58) shows how the foot-print has been useful in hospitals and elsewhere. It may check the finger-print. Classifications of foot-prints have been tried out satisfactorily on a file of 2,000.

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## THE SOCIAL RELATIONS OF CHILDREN

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It has been proved somewhat difficult to delimit the field of recent literature dealing with the social relations of children. Narrowly conceived, only about a dozen of the titles in the accompanying bibliography deal chiefly and clearly with this topic. The moment, however, that a broader view is entertained, too large a mass of material presses for consideration. In the field of juvenile delinquency the studies concerned chiefly with mental, physical and hereditary factors have been omitted. The field of emotional and personality problems and development has been included as well as those studies in mental hygiene and psychoanalysis which are primarily concerned with behavior problems of children. Techniques, as such, for the measurement of personality and character, with the exception of traits closely related to social relations, are omitted. The emphasis falls upon the literature which presents case studies, objective data, or suggestive methods and procedures. Only the more important theoretical discussions are noted. The period reviewed covers January, 1924, to October, 1927. Although an effort has been made to cover this period systematically, a number of important studies undoubtedly have been overlooked. The review and bibliography do not attempt to be exhaustive, but rather to be selective.

The literature of these four years is in marked contrast to the literature of 1914 to 1917. The preschool child has been discovered, and the early adolescent rediscovered. The limitations of intelligence testing are clearly recognized. The center of interest of the builders of tests has shifted to the measurement of emotional drives, and personality and character traits. The principles of psychoanalysis and mental hygiene are being used widely in the study of children. The young criminal has entirely disappeared, and the juvenile delinquent is disappearing. In his place we have the maladjusted or unadjusted or problem child. In searching for the causes of undesirable behavior less emphasis is being placed on heredity and mental deficiency, and more upon motivation, emotional instability, and the home environment. There has been a very great interest in intensive case studies, controlled observation, quantitative measurement, and

experimental and statistical analysis. Finally, there is a determination to spare neither time, nor money, nor labor, in studying these problems. All of these points of view and methods are so interwoven in nearly every study that it is impossible to present any logically ordered discussion of the field.

The sheer magnitude of the mass of data is worthy of notice. To sample only from the first few items in the bibliography: Andrus (1) obtained 1,050 hours of observation on the habits of 52 children in four nursery schools. Bingham (3) examined 250 high school girls sent to a clinic as school problems. Blanchard (5) studied 800 problem and normal children. Burt (9) studied 600 delinquents and non-delinquents. Busch (10) tested the race attitudes of 600 children. Estabrook (18) studied the history of the 658 members of the Win tribe. And so it goes through the list. This does not represent a tendency toward mere bigness, but for the most part reflects a growing confidence in and dependence upon statistical procedures.

That there is quality in this great quantity of work is evident from the new techniques and refinements of old ones which have been employed. There has been new interest in controlled observation of many individual children by different methods and from different viewpoints. The study of Andrus (1) has already been referred to. Jones (46) studied intensively ten types of behavior among 365 infants. Meltzer (71, 72) systematically interviewed 333 children from grades V to XII, asking for their conceptions of various social concepts such as democracy and big business. Piaget (81) took down all that was said during certain hours by children of four to eleven years of age. Gesell (28) systematically observed and tested groups of 50 children at different preschool periods. Many of these careful observational studies are made from special points of view. Furfey (24) and Thrasher (99) have made extensive observations on boys during early adolescence. Healy (39) and Burt (9) have studied intensively many hundreds of juvenile delinquents. Richards (83) has made intensive studies of smaller numbers of delinquents. Large numbers of problem children referred to clinics by parents and school systems have been studied in detail from the point of view of mental hygiene by Bingham (3), Blanchard (5), Mateer (68) and Wallace (103). The studies of Bisch (4), and Pfister (80) are from the viewpoints of psychiatry and sex pathology.



Macaulay (62), Macaulay and Watkins (63), Studencki (95), and Williams (113) have obtained the essays of thousands of children written in response to such questions as "Whom would you most wish to be like?" Goodenough (33) has also found that asking for children's wishes brings suggestive responses.

Techniques for the measurement of sociability and the personality traits of children have multiplied rapidly. Since this field has already been adequately covered by the bibliographies of May and Hartshorne (70), Manson (69), Starbuck (93), and Watson (106), only the very recent studies or those concerned specifically with sociability are noticed. Moss *et al.* (75, 76, 77) and Gilliland and Burke (30) have attempted to measure sociability or social intelligence by means of tests of ability to associate names and significant facts with photographs. Lehman (58) has used the proportion of group play activities as a measure of sociability. Recent attempts to build tests for children, not noticed in the above bibliographies, are by Frederick (21), Sheldon (92), Marston (66), and Woodrow (115). Sheldon obtained ratings of aggressiveness, leadership and sociability, and found low but positive correlations with size. Marston developed an excellent scale for the rating of the introvert and extrovert and supplemented this with tests of behavior in a series of objectively controlled situations.

A final feature of the interest in technique and methods is the wide use of control or comparison groups of subjects. Cushing (17), Lenz (60), Blanchard (5), Burt (9), Foster (20), and Terman (98) have compared groups of normal children with delinquents, problem children, jealous children, and gifted children by means of a wide variety of methods. Lehman (52 to 59) has made a large number of ingenious comparisons between groups of children, including age groups. Gesell (28), Piaget (8), Bingham (3), Haggerty (36), Healy (39), Jones (46), Meltzer (71), Macaulay (62), and Studencki (95), have traced various aspects of personality development through different age levels.

✓ The problems centering around the juvenile delinquent, the unstable, maladjusted and problem child, have engaged the most attention. Nearly a third of the articles listed in the bibliography are concerned with various aspects of this problem. The extent of the problem when all types of maladjustment are considered is shown by Haggerty's (36) study which reports that 51 per cent of school children exhibited some form of undesirable behavior. There

is a nearly unanimous tendency on the part of all students to trace these difficulties in large part to motivation, emotional instability, and faulty mental hygiene (3, 5, 8, 9, 31, 39, 61, 68, 74, 80, 83, 104). Poor home environment, improper discipline and training are responsible in large measure (3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 15, 38, 39, 65, 91), but poverty, nativity of parents, and size of family are not important according to Burt (9), Healy (39), Stuart (94), and Goodenough (32). Burt (9), and Healy (39) go so far as to deny the importance of family history of mental deficiency or instability. The problem child is usually retarded educationally (5, 9, 36, 103), but depending on the type of maladjustment, investigators have found little (9, 39) or considerable mental defect (3, 5). Haggerty (36) found a larger proportion of problem cases among children of high and low intelligence than among children of normal intelligence. In addition to strictly original work the last four years have seen a goodly number of texts or popular presentations of these topics specially prepared to acquaint teachers, parents and social workers with the newer points of view and methods of dealing with problem children (34, 35, 37, 82, 87, 88, 101, 102, 112).

Two intensive studies of boys in the pre-adolescent period have been made. Furfey (24) studied this neglected transitional period from a psychological and sociological viewpoint. Thrasher (99) describes the beginning, growth, influence, and activities of the gang and gives suggestions for dealing with its undesirable aspects.

Two studies of the similarities of chums have been made by Wellman (110) and Furfey (23). Although Piaget (81) was particularly interested in the development of logical thinking, his analysis of children's conversation into egocentric and social with a marked shift from the one to the other at seven and eight years of age is significant.

The study of Richmond (85) on child marriages is deserving of wider notice by psychologists and educators interested in children.

The investigations of Lehman and Witty (52 to 59) on the play activities of children are important. The Lehman play quiz consisting of two hundred activities was given to some 6,000 Kansas City and other children from grades three to twelve with requests that they check all activities participated in the previous week and all activities participated in alone. From among some twenty-five articles reporting the results of this study, those dealing with social versus solitary play have been selected. They found that there are

no marked periods of social or gang play, that negro and retarded children participate in more social play, that children participating in an excessive amount of social play are rated lower on 30 out of 34 character traits than children who participate in an excessive amount of solitary play.

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## SPECIAL REVIEW

A. A. ROBACK. *The Psychology of Character*. N. Y.: Harcourt Brace, 1927. xxiv+595.

Here is a guide-book through the tangled territory of characterology. It has appeared opportunely at a time when scientific interest is becoming proportionate to the importance of the subject. This is a field where points of view are so numerous, methods so varied, and issues so obscure, that it is not easy to separate traditional wisdom from traditional nonsense, nor contemporary wisdom from contemporary nonsense. It gives one confidence to discover that it has been possible for Dr. Roback in a single comprehensive volume to assemble and criticize a bewildering number of ideas, and to work out a clear and consistent point of view regarding the theoretical aspects of character.

Part I of this book follows through the course of literary characterology (the method of Theophrastus), the humoral doctrine and other theories of temperament down to and including the glandular present, proverbial lore and inspirational literature, the critical approach to the study of character (Bacon, Mill, Galton, and others), and ends with the author's definition of terms.

Part II concerns classifications of characters: the scientific arabesques of the French, the heavier designs of the Germans, and the occasional contributions by writers of other nations. Especially interesting in this part is a chapter on Fourier whose *Passions of the Human Soul* is made less forbidding in a sympathetic summary. This chapter is typical of the author's skill in extracting the essences of older writings and presenting them in pleasing miniature.

Part III deals with contemporary methods: psychiatry, psychoanalysis, *Struktur* psychology, endocrinology, behaviorism, experimentation, philosophy, and biography. A host of writers come under consideration in this part, not in an unorganized array, but grouped so as to bring resemblances and contrasts into perspective. Early work is uncovered which has been unjustly forgotten, as well as contemporary work which is not well known; witness the treatment of Koch, Tesdorpf, Ewald, Anton, Gross, Dilthey; Häberlin, Pfänder, and Th. Lessing. Part IV contains the constructive portion of the treatise.

For the casual reader the diet of the first three parts (444 pages) is perhaps too rich. The epicure in characterology on the other hand will feast with enjoyment on the variety and substance of these pages. For comprehensiveness and accuracy the workmanship is unexcelled. Together with the extensive bibliography (mentioned later) these sections will undoubtedly serve as the standard history of the subject for many years to come.

The author has an interest in scientific genealogies, and skill in establishing lineages and kinships between schools and members of schools. The relating of writers within the French School, the Teutonic School, and the British School is itself a step toward a racial psychology of scientific and literary performance. The reader will be particularly pleased with the author's understanding of contemporary German philosophy and psychology in their bearing upon personality.

Frequent brief criticisms serve to enliven the pages in their steady march through the history of the subject. These critical comments are apt, but are rather in the nature of thrusts than of systematic refutation. With a number of these critical judgments the reader may disagree. When, for example, the chapter on the contribution of behaviorism (a scant 8 pages), entitled, "The Behavioristic Detour," contains principally an attack upon Watson's over-simplification of the problems of personality, a palpable injustice is done. Throughout the volume behaviorism is credited with nothing meritorious. Even the American experimental approach is belittled in so far as it shows behavioristic leanings. At one point at least, however, the author's thrust is just: "It is one of the paradoxes of the American character testers that while they move in a mechanistic and moderately behavioristic atmosphere, they yet are content to busy themselves with virtues and vices (honesty, dishonesty, trustworthiness) instead of attempting to pick out the psychological warp and woof of these traits—their genetic motives." (362)

The author errs, in the reviewer's opinion, in his broad use of the term "phrenology." His tendency is to call those writers phrenological who seek to establish any erroneous parallels between character and physique or to include under "character" a *potpourri* of attributes. Thus, Carus (95), Le Bon (145), Bain (183), and the American testers (380) are accused in various respects of adopting the methods and theories of Gall. A special chapter devoted to an orderly study of phrenology (and one to physiognomy) would have

prevented such looseness, and would have provided grounds for zoning, as it were, the slums and the residences of respectability in this ancient territory.

The chapter on "Biographical and Historical Material as Sources of Character Study" is noteworthy. Psychographs, pathographs, and clinical histories are methods growing in favor, but in spite of these approaches to biography, there is still, what every psychologist will secretly admit, more truth about personality in the less controlled methods of literature. Dr. Roback is to be credited for neither scorning nor overlooking the literary sources. He includes for example an investigation concerning the correspondence of children as a revelation of personal character. It seems, however, that the best of all meeting grounds for science and literature—the case study—is inadequately understood by the author, who says, "The field of operation for the case method is naturally restricted, in as much as from its very nature it is applicable to those individuals only who require institutional attention, whether they be defective in some one respect, delinquent or psychoneurotic. The normal person, in the conventional sense of the word, can never be subjected to this method." (422) These strictures are by no means convincing.

To understand Dr. Roback's theory of character (foreshadowed in the first three parts, and developed in full in Part IV) it is necessary to regard character as distinct from, or at least as a very specialized portion of, personality. "In this book, I am taking the position that personality is the sum total of all our cognitive, affective, conative and even physical tendencies. The sum total here does not mean a simple addition but an integration. . . . Character is that part of the personality which remains after the cognitive, affective and physical qualities have been abstracted. Character, then, covers the volitional and inhibitory phases of behavior. . . ." (159f.) Dr. Roback would agree with Jennings that "There is no *a priori* ground for sneering at the notion that man in some respects acts on principles diverse from other animals." It is the possession of character, the power to control one's behavior in accordance with one's best reflections, which distinguishes man from beast. (158) Here indeed is a common-sense conception of character. The author quickly parts company with common sense, however, on the issue of convention. He believes that the higher type of character usually clashes with the slave morality of the masses (516).



Defined more exactly, character is "*an enduring psychophysical disposition to inhibit instinctive impulses in accordance with a regulative principle.*"(450) As the theory unfolds it appears that there are five conceptions indispensable to the defense of this definition.

(1) *Instincts.* "To the objection that our knowledge about instincts is limited and that controversy is rife as to their number, one might easily reply that it is not necessary to have detailed information about every instinct before one can work with any of them. . . . It is quite sufficient to base our study of character on the more palpable instincts, such as self-preservation, sex, acquisitiveness, self-aggression, or the will to power."(450-451) Since instincts must be *inhibited* in order to achieve character, the author would seem to imply that he joins the Puritans in condemning the natural man. But he denies the charge: "Instincts are neither good nor bad, but because of their insistent driving force the ability to inhibit them becomes the distinguishing mark of a man of character."(463) Also, "the inhibition of an instinct need not necessarily be taken as an indication of the evil inherent in the instinct any more than the inhibition of the extensor muscle when flexing our finger signifies the objectionability of that muscle."(561) In spite of these assertions it seems clear that Dr. Roback sees no good in the expression of the instincts for their own sake. He invites the seeker after character to repudiate the gospel of reconciliation of impulse with environment, to turn his back upon the current apotheosis of adjustment, to forsake the ethics of Holt, and not to flee from the pain of conflict, for "conflict is rather indicative of character, so long as the stronger instinctive tendency has eventually been overcome in obedience to the higher sanction or maxim of conduct."(469)

(2) *Inhibition.* Although character is positive in action it cannot be measured excepting with reference to the force of the inhibitions through which it operates. Persons with weak instincts cannot be regarded as possessed of a character equal to that of men who have subdued strong native impulses, even though their behavior may seem superficially to be the same. We are also cautioned that inhibition is not merely a negative process: "We know that the inhibition of one tendency will lead to the expression of the opposite tendency so that absolute inaction as a result of inhibition is restricted almost exclusively to neurotics and characters in fiction."(455) That inhibition is only the reverse side of a positive action all will agree, but the assertions that "the inhibition of the extensor and flexor

muscles is something entirely different from the inhibition of an instinctive urge" and that "inhibition is but an abstract principle," (541) need explanation and defense. If inhibition is "the core of character," it is a pity to leave the reader inadequately informed as to the nature of its operation.

(3) *Intellect*. "The highest type of character will be manifested only in those individuals of the highest type of intelligence, or rather intellect." (471) There are indications that gifted children, as well as the genius, who has been too much maligned, show more character than their average contemporaries. True intellect is indispensable to character (though not in itself a complete guarantee), for only through judgment, reason, and foresight can the connection between goals (principles) and means (inhibition of present instinctive impulses) be correctly apprehended. Furthermore inhibitions arising out of purely instinctive sources or from social pressure are worthless; they must be guided by ethico-logical principles which are possible only to those whose intellect is adequate to comprehension of a high order.

(4) *Consistency*. An additional ingredient in character is the urge to consistency. By consistency is meant a tendency to depersonalize actions, to view them from the standpoint of universality. (486) It is not founded on sympathy or pity, but upon a sense of justice. Women seem relatively lacking, and "young children seldom give indications of this tendency." (488) Criminals are devoid of it, and "the *lex talionis* is after all the most logical means of asserting the sovereignty of the consistency principle." (492) Without a postulate of an inborn consistency urge the author finds it impossible to establish psychological grounds for the existence of character of the type shown by prophets and great and just leaders.

(5) *Regulative Principle*. The force of one instinct over another, or the control by the mores, does not produce character. It is only when the inhibition is from within (regulative principles) that we can say there is character back of the restraint. (481) There may be regulative principles of various orders: physical, legal, social, religious, aesthetic, and ethico-logical (468); but only the ethico-logical joined with vision is capable of guiding conduct according to a standard of justice (the highest virtue, and one toward which the consistency principle disposes us). At this point the author's theory approximates Kantian ethics more closely than he himself acknowledges.

As the theory develops it becomes less psychological and more normative, a fact which the author frankly admits. We simply must presuppose the existence of absolute principles; for "not only morality but all science and art would be in the most precarious condition, destitute of a *raison d'être*, unless the sovereignty of the values were taken for granted." "Whether these principles have originated with man or with Deity, they are binding; for our whole cultural structure presupposes them." (553)

There is a strong note of aristocracy in the theory; it is almost snobbish. It is likewise heavy with fatalism, for the burden is placed almost exclusively upon nativistic determinants. The instincts (by definition), intelligence, the consistency urge, and the "plasticity" necessary for inhibition are regarded as functions of innate endowment. And it is strongly implied that a high order of regulative principles is also in part a matter of native possession. Clearly there is small field here for moral exhortation. It would seem incongruous to praise or blame, to reward or punish; and yet the author himself does not refuse to praise and to censor. (492, 512, 481)

Another striking result of this nativistic leaning is found in the discussions of character in women. "Their reasoning lacks consideration for others. It is the element of consistency alone which is wanting—a gap which is sometimes filled by the substitute of pity." "Consistency in action, which is one of the chief ingredients of character, can be traced to original connate tendencies." (489) The environmentalist, of course, would simply reply that in so far as women lack in the *habit* of universalizing their standards, and depend rather upon sympathy for a guide, a ready explanation is at hand in their training for a personal rather than a universal outlook.

Dr. Roback has little use for the contemporary watch-words of psychological ethics: adjustment and integration. An excellent chapter is devoted to the subject of "Character and Adjustment," and here the anchorless and question-begging quality of ethical naturalism is exposed. Normality is mediocrity; "malcontents and maladjusted souls cannot be seen except through their own light, for they determine the normality of future generations." (516) A hypocrite may be well-adjusted, and even more integrated than a man of character. Holt would say that character evolves *pari passu* with discriminating adjustment; the author contends on the other hand that character *precedes* and dictates the nature of the adjustment.

The theory is well thought through (with the possible exception

of the rôle of inhibition). Its presuppositions will not be accepted by an environmentalist; and the scientist who seeks to exclude all consideration of objective value from human character will be annoyed. The work is, however, a challenge to the large portion of this latter group, who, while professing agnosticism regarding values, surreptitiously traffic in them. Strange to say it is generally the "unphilosophical" behaviorist who has the most insidiously normative leanings. The separation of ethics and psychology should be rigidly observed, or else the relation between them should be as finely considered as in the volume here reviewed.

NOTE: The bibliography (340 pages) which has been brought out as a companion volume is itself a work of first magnitude. A previous review of this bibliography, based upon early galley proofs (*Psychol. Bull.*, 1927, 24, 309), erroneously stated that the volume is published by the Harvard University Press. It has been subsequently revised and extended and may be obtained from *Sci-Art Publishers, Harvard Square, Cambridge, Mass.*

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